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ABSTRACT

This report discusses new staff development techniques -- interaction analysis, microteaching, and clinical supervision -- and describes new technology such as video recorders. Approaching these new techniques descriptively rather than prescriptively, the author discusses the programs of two regional laboratories -- the Far West Laboratory and the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, and points out some of their approaches to staff development which focus on teacher personality rather than on teacher skills. The author advocates the formation of teacher centers where teachers could gather informally, exchange experiences, and otherwise just talk. (JF)

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Fred T. Wilhelms

Fred T. Wilhelms, former Executive Secretary and more recently Senior Associate, officially retired from the ASCD staff in August 1972. Dr. Wilhelms' distinguished career in education has included many years of service to the Association. In addition to his recent positions on the Washington staff, he served as Chairman of the Publications Committee and of the 1967 ASCD Yearbook, *Evaluation as Feedback and Guide*.

As a public school teacher and administrator in his native Nebraska, and as Professor of Education and Chairman of the Division of Education and Psychology at San Francisco State College, his deep interest in curriculum has been at the center of his professional life. For many years he has been an active writer, chiefly of magazine pieces, yearbook chapters, and pamphlets.

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Supervision in a New Key

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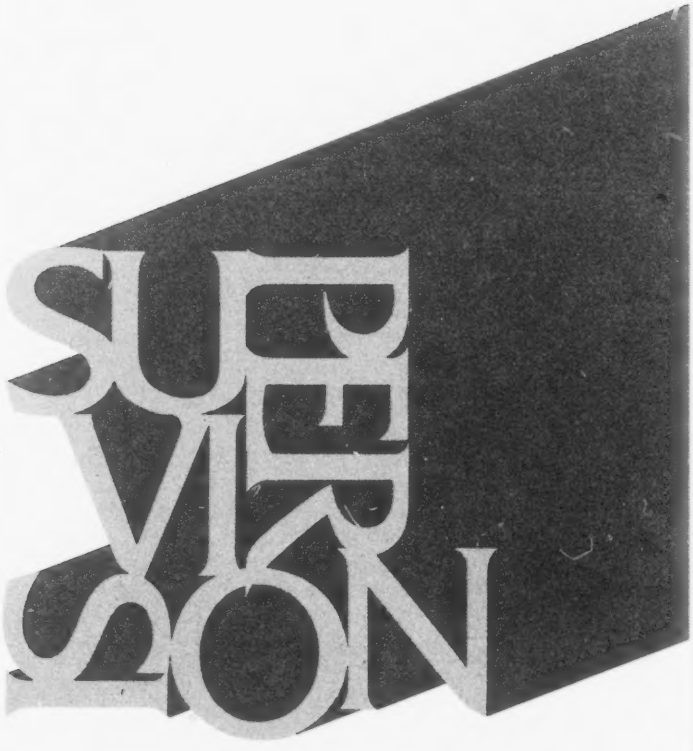

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Foreword

AT LEAST five new factors have emerged on the educational scene which are influencing the theory and practice of supervision in schools. These factors give rise to hope for important developments in the field. Until recently, supervision had changed very little from the theory and practice of half a century or more ago. That statement may offend some persons, but those who go back and read the professional literature in the area of supervision will find the same language, the same propositions, the same basic ideas being advocated then as have been advocated in more recent times.

And therein lies at least part of the problem. *Prescriptive* statements telling supervisors what they ought to do have been readily available. *Descriptive* statements about what supervisors actually do have been in short supply. There has been nothing in the area of supervision comparable to the descriptions of teaching or descriptions of administering which have helped us understand the nature of supervision with the depth of insight and with the precise awareness that has moved us to the verge of a "breakthrough" in our understandings of these other fields. A few questionnaire studies here and there but no in-depth analysis of what supervision is and what supervisors do has come our way.

But all that is beginning to change. New forces are operating now: student demands, teacher militancy, and taxpayer revolts, to name just three. New hardware has come into use, too: video recorders are particularly important, it seems. New theoretical conceptualizations (for example, MacGregor's Theory "Y," and Interaction Analysis) and new software items have been developed also. When one adds to those factors the creation of wholly new institutions such as the Regional Laboratories, then it is apparent that we have incremental beginnings which may soon approximate a critical mass.

Fred Wilhelms describes some of these developments in practical terms. This pamphlet is essentially descriptive, and Fred Wilhelms is a perceptive observer. The ideas and the practices which he outlines here should prove particularly useful to those people who are desirous of "breaking out" of their old patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting

in the supervision realm. We are indebted to Dr. Wilhelms for his thoughtful analysis. This paper might very well trigger intensive studies of supervisory behavior that could lead us to a richer understanding of what supervision really is.

From there we could begin to probe why supervisors do what they do, the values they hold, and how they see other people—the really important aspects of helping other people develop and learn and grow. Yet we can never get to an understanding of those basic motivations and life styles of supervisors unless we first come to know with greater precision and in more elaborate detail what the new developments are. This paper represents an important step along that very difficult path to helping the change agent change.

March 1973

JACK R. FRYMIER
The Ohio State University

What This Booklet Is About

MAYBE ONE ought to say that what this booklet is about is *staff development*. Maybe one should not start with the word "supervision" at all, because it has always been overidentified with one meager part of the total supervisory program: the part in which the principal or some other supervisor visits a teacher's class and later delivers a critique of the performance.

Of course, in any decent supervisory system, there was always a great deal more than a mere program of classroom visitation. In the better systems even the bare skills-development objective, the polishing of "methods," which was usually the center of attention in a visit, was approached in a variety of ways. Beyond that, there was sincere effort to provide rich opportunities for teachers to grow on the job—to grow as persons as well as professionals.

Furthermore, sensitive leaders have long striven for broad-based involvement of teachers in the shared development of programs and policies. And the best of them have always sensed that as an *essential function* the supervisory program (maybe *leadership* program would say it better) is the nervous system of the school. It is not merely a system for updating methodology; it is not even merely a system for the coordination of many parts. It is, above all else, the mechanism for adaptation; it represents that ability to adapt to new conditions which an organism—or school—must have or die.

This essential function cannot be shaken off. Teachers may dislike the traditional part of it that catches their eye; a few superintendents may acquire brief fame by "firing all the supervisors"; boards of education may pare their budgets first of all by cutting off everybody who doesn't work directly with children in the classroom. But the function still remains; it has to be performed, or the schools are doomed.

We have to have ways and means of effecting planned, progressive change. If we mean to go on, we have got to search out new ways of doing the job. And we ought to be making the search with vigor and enthusiasm.

Luckily for us, there are several new thrusts which hold great promise. These thrusts share two great advantages.

1. They rely heavily on teacher initiative and provide a large measure of teacher autonomy. They are in tune with the spirit of our times.

2. They "work." They may not yet encompass every aspect of what constitutes good teaching. But the aspects they do deal with are fundamentally important ones.

Yet we must not discard all of the traditional system. Far from it! We need a renaissance of the best of the old, which has been languishing rather badly these past years. We can achieve it with fresh new spirit as soon as we get some of the old counterproductive routines off our backs.

There are new ways of going at some parts of the supervisory job which deserve far more attention and use than they have been receiving. If we put together the best of the new with the best of the old, we can fashion something that genuinely deserves to be called staff development.

The New Media of Staff Development

A QUICK overview first: Quite a few years ago Ned Flanders pioneered the development of interaction analysis. It may not be too much to say that, virtually for the first time, it provided a reasonably objective and systematic way of analyzing at least some aspects of what goes on in a classroom. Since then a number of other individuals and groups have taken off from Flanders' work to develop a variety of analytical matrices and methods, and attention has been extended to the analysis of non-verbal as well as verbal interaction. Some of the more recent work has gone in the direction of simplification and of enabling the teacher to move more independently toward *self*-analysis. Some of the ongoing work attempts to catch more dimensions of the total classroom life.

During roughly the same period, the National Training Laboratories have pioneered the study of group dynamics in the classroom, and then of sensitivity training for teachers and all educators. Again this body of work has been followed out by other groups and has proliferated into a variety of programs with many nuances of techniques.

From Stanford University came another ingredient: microteaching, the teaching of very brief, limited lessons to about a half dozen children.

It permitted focusing upon one or a very few skills or objectives at a time, and provided almost instant feedback on process and product. Originally intended for use in preservice education, it has been finding its way into in-service growth programs as well.

At about the same time, audiotaping and then, increasingly, videotaping became easy to use and economically feasible. This introduced a wholly new element, making it possible to preserve at least part of the fleeting process of the classroom and subject it later to multiple analyses. Systems have begun to spring up which enable the teacher himself to turn on the audio or video recorder and then carry on his own self-analysis if he chooses to. Such a system may provide him prototype films and/or some other form of directive as to skills he is to practice, and then provide him systematic guides to the analysis of his procedures. To some extent those guides may be based upon the work in interaction analysis. Yet there are also systems that bypass the electronic aids—partly because they are not yet accessible to everyone but also for other reasons—and depend upon peer observers armed with analytical aids. One developing system also provides a "performance test" at the end of each minilesson to facilitate correlation of process and product.

These appear to be the major new tools, but even as an overview this is too skimpy. The ferment has been very active, and a great deal of scientific work has been going forward. For instance, significant studies have been demonstrating that, within some limits and in a general way, the "indirect" teacher behaviors (less teacher talk and controlling direction) which the interaction analysis schemes have tended to emphasize really *are* effective, both cognitively and affectively. The teaching act itself has been taken apart into its component skills (such as the art of asking productive questions) to be studied one at a time. This has had a great assist from the movement toward more precise behavioral objectives, which opens the way to more precision in correlating successes and failures with input and process. Pioneers like Hilda Taba and Richard Suchman have created models of processes which are geared to newly envisioned purposes. J. Lloyd Trump took his great plunge for independent study, and many of the new curriculum project materials make it easier to turn his dream into a reality.

The whole climate and social system of a classroom—going much beyond what can so far be caught by interaction analysis—have been studied. The movement toward flexible scheduling, combined with more open physical space and interactive team teaching—plus the still freer, more daring work of various alternative schools—has laid open new possibilities. From across the Atlantic, the brilliant work of the British with young children presents new vistas to the imagination. And now,

also borrowing somewhat from the English, we seem about to move, with the support of the U.S. Office of Education, into the creation of Teacher Renewal Centers which may well give a new cast to our whole effort in staff development.

All well and good! It is clear that leadership in the improvement of instruction not only has new media at its command but even has a new definition and scope. But now we must face the hard technical question of how to put all these resources together into their best, most coherent combination and make them available to all who need them. Not all the theoretical questions can be answered yet, by any means. What we can do right now is to look at the components one by one, in a preliminary size-up. Therefore, the rest of this report will focus on "the nuts and bolts" of some major ongoing programs.

The Far West Laboratory

Probably a good place to start is with the work of the Far West Regional Educational Laboratory, because it has interwoven most of the new media into coherent "packages" and it has been going long enough to have tested results based on thousands of cases. We shall describe it in some detail in order to lay the foundation for briefer descriptions of some other programs.

The basic building block of the Far West Lab's Teacher Education Program is the *minicourse*. It is significant to note that the Lab's most comprehensive publication calls the minicourse "a microteaching approach to teacher education." The development of Minicourse I began in 1967. At this writing the Lab has five minicourses commercially available, with five more at various stages in the testing process and about that many more at the idea stage.

Each minicourse consists of a self-contained body of materials. These include three printed pieces which cover the course as a whole:

- A teacher's handbook which guides the individual through the course and includes self-evaluation forms at each stage
- A coordinator's handbook which deals with the physical setup, suggested schedules, and practical administrative matters
- A research supplement that explains the R & D rationale and furnishes data from field tests and other research.

For each lesson in the course, two sorts of color films are provided:

- "How-to" films that explain the particular skills to be tackled and provide a rationale as to their purposes and importance

• "Model" films that show teachers using these skills. (After considerable debating, the Lab decided to make these deliberately a bit "artificial"—rather than to use films of normal classes in their ordinary operation—in order to concentrate attention on a few precise essentials and provide many examples in a short time.)

Given these materials, the teacher then embarks on a systematic routine that will take about three hours a week for five weeks. Each week, after using the handbook and viewing the instructional film and model film, the teacher plans a lesson, selects five or six of his students, takes them to the designated room, and microteaches for about 20 minutes. He then studies his video tape (or audio tape is possible in one course) with the help of the evaluation forms. A couple of days later he replans his lesson and techniques, selects a new group of students, and reteaches. Once again he goes through the self-evaluation process. Of course, if facilities and time permit, he can re-view the instructional and model films as he feels the need. And he may well want to study his own tape over and over before he erases it to be used by the next teacher.

That is the basic system over a five-week period. Of course, it assumes that the school has the necessary taping equipment and supplies, which can vary greatly in price but apparently can be had for about $2,000 to $3,000. The Lab also recommends that one room, at least 12′ by 14′ in size, be set aside for the microteaching and taping. The system seems to work best if a coordinator is appointed to handle the scheduling, manage the equipment, etc. The teachers will be far more comfortable if the coordinator teaches them how to run whatever they need to run and helps them over the bumps if they have any trouble. He is not thought of as having anything to do with the "professional" aspects of the program. He is simply a facilitator.

All of this may sound rather formidable and expensive if one thinks of only one teacher or a few teachers using only one minicourse. Yet if the system is used over time at something like full capacity, the costs for materials can be brought down to some three or four dollars per teacher. The full sets of materials for the five minicourses now available range in purchase price from $1,080 to $1,425. Six-week rentals range from $165 to $198. The locally purchased blank tapes can, of course, be used over and over.

Perhaps in the long run the greatest recurring cost will be for substitutes to cover the classes while the teachers are out. The Lab suggests hiring floating substitutes who can move from room to room on schedule. Of course, there are many ways of getting around this problem, especially in team-teaching situations.

This whole managerial side is beautifully handled in a very readable booklet produced by the Lab: *Minicourses Work*. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (Stock Number 1780-0863.)

This booklet is completely explicit about equipment and supply requirements as well as other implementation costs, and it suggests schedules and systems of utilization. It also discusses the minicourses themselves and has appendices on philosophy and research as well as on evaluation data and teacher views. But these last items are more fully treated in a book I shall list later.

So much for the mechanics. Now one legitimate question is: What becomes of the supervisory role in such a scheme? It changes. The leadership role will still be very important in helping the teachers to know what is available and what will be involved, as well as to size up their personal needs and select the offerings that fit. Administration will need to manage the financing and purchasing, arrange the physical setup, and coordinate scheduling. Supervision will play a major role in creating the "open," friendly *esprit de corps* which will encourage teachers to dive into what may look like pretty cold water.

But no one should be coerced in even the slightest way to make the dive. And once the volunteers are in, they should be provided absolute privacy unless they ask to share—and the absolute right to withdraw if and when they feel like it. One of the great beauties of such a system is that it can be carried through by the teacher himself. Only he sees his videotape; only he supplies the critical analysis.

General experience shows that once teachers break the ice they get comfortable with the machinery and—more important—with systematic self-analysis. Then they begin to reach out, to swap experiences and maybe share tapes with a husband or wife, a close colleague, or even with some trusted supervisor or administrator. A general atmosphere of objectivity about procedures and their effects begins to form. The process should not be forced or hurried, and it should be *all right* if it never comes along. But Ned Flanders, who has recently taken charge of the Lab's Teacher Education Program, is convinced that ultimately the whole process will be most effective when it is woven into the fabric of the entire supervisory system.

Another legitimate question is: How well does the system "work" —and how do we know? This brief paper is not the place to review the data. But there is substantial research to show that:

- Feedback to teachers from their teaching results in improved performance. Apparently it is less effective when it is "handed down"

by any authority figure, more effective when it is worked out through direct involvement.

- Microteaching is a highly effective device in both preservice and in-service education.

- Microteaching-as-skills-practice is most effective when it is narrowly focused on one or a very few skills at a time and when there is specific explication and guidance in advance. Such guidance can be provided through printed materials or *via* film, but some combination of the two is apparently optimal.

- Videotaping is an excellent medium for delivering feedback. For some purposes audiotaping is adequate.

- *But* self-analysis on the basis of a tape needs systematic guidance. Without this, teachers will pay primary attention to the "cosmetic" aspects—how they looked, how their voice sounded, what mannerisms they displayed. There needs to be some device to concentrate attention on the particular skills being practiced and provide a kind of self-scoring evaluation.

- The gains in skills are significant, often large; they accrue rapidly, and apparently they *last* (though, of course, the evidence on this lasting quality is skimpy in a field that is still so new). For example, the ratio of teacher talk to student talk drops significantly. The distribution of questions moves away from a preponderance of bare factual questions to a judicious scatter across the various levels involving the higher processes of thought. Other highly specific skills, such as pausing for a few seconds to let the students think or probing more deeply into a student's first response, can be established quickly.

- Teachers predominantly enjoy and value this type of learning experience. They tend to compare it very favorably with other forms of in-service opportunities.

The detailed research reports are scattered through many papers. The best single synthesis I have found is: *The Minicourse: A Microteaching Approach to Teacher Education*, by Walter Borg and others. Macmillan Educational Services, Inc., 8701 Wiltshire Boulevard, Beverly Hills, California 90211; 1970, 256 pages.

Borg was the first director of Far West's Teacher Education Program and produced the first minicourses. In this volume he and his associates trace out their reasoning and the evidence they used as they decided upon the minicourse format and its details. They discuss field-testing procedures they used and present the evaluative data that were

available by 1970. It is a superb job of synthesizing research and turning it into principles of action.

The minicourses available as this was written were:

Effective Questioning—Elementary Level
Developing Children's Oral Language
Individualizing Instruction in Mathematics
Organizing Independent Learning—Primary Level
Higher Cognitive Questioning.

These are available from: The Macmillan Company, Front and Brown Streets, Riverdale, New Jersey 08075.

Coming into the market at intervals in the near future will be:

Role Playing for Upper Elementary Grades
Organizing Independent Learning: Secondary Level
Teaching Reading as Decoding
Divergent Thinking
Teaching Reading as Comprehension.

For general information, write to: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research & Development, 1 Garden Circle, Hotel Claremont, Berkeley, California 94705.

The Northwest Lab

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory has thrown tremendous energy into helping teachers build up their instructional competencies. It has developed a group of offerings which, so far as I know, have no counterpart elsewhere. If one comes to this body of work, as I did, from a survey of the Far West Lab, one is struck immediately by two salient differences.

1. The Northwest Lab makes much less use of electronic aids. While it has produced some film and a fair amount of audio tape, it does not depend at all on the local school's being equipped for videotaping. Neither does it make much use of microteaching. The decision to bypass the video tape recorder was dictated by the assumption that it would be many years before most schools in the Lab's immediate service area were likely to have the equipment. The choice was also based partly on a belief that greater reliance on human interaction would be more productive.

The Lab's offerings depend primarily on interactive work by triads of teachers, along with "small groups" made up of two triads. Much of the time one or two members of a triad try something while the other

one or two, armed with analytical guides, play the role of observer. The roles keep shifting, and the result is a steady pattern of mutual help using objectively defined observation criteria.

2. While the Far West Lab's minicourses stick pretty close (so far) to the level of basic skills, the Northwest Lab is aiming at the larger strategies of teaching. It works intensively on the component skills, too, but slowly puts them together into a larger model, such as Suchman's inquiry process or Taba's higher processes of thinking.

One result of this is that the Northwest Lab's work is organized into larger blocks. Where a Far West minicourse may call for only about 25 hours of a teacher's time, a Northwest Lab course may need from five to seven full days (or adaptation thereof in half-day periods, etc.) to a full month. In fact, its courses—if one may call them that—have much more of the scope of a typical in-service extension course, though generally they do not lend themselves well to a two or three hours a week format.

In addition to these basic differences, one further point is worth making in an introductory way. The Northwest Lab is driving for maximum dissemination of its work through the use of regional representatives in each part of the country who can provide training for local leaders. For example, in the opening round, the Lab sent its own specialized staff members into some Alaskan centers to lead groups through the workshops. After that, workshop members with good personal qualifications as leaders could head up workshops in their areas. Thus, over time, a network of local leaders can continue to spread the work.

This may sound like saying that the materials are "leader proof." But that really is not the idea. The materials *are* explicit and extremely well thought-through; the directions are exact at every point; background materials, in printed form or on audio tape or both, are made available when needed; and the leaders' guides are rich in rationale statements and backup stuff. But the *real* reason that leadership can be so dispersed is of a different order: the results of a workshop come, not from what the leader does (so long as he handles the system according to directions given in it) but from what the participants do. Each workshop is essentially a series of planned laboratory exercises, with generous interchange of ideas and feelings. Once an exercise is set in motion, what happens is highly "open." Thus, what seems on the surface like a minutely directive schema is actually a plan for self-responsibility and initiative.

Perhaps we can see the Lab's style best by looking at one of its products, *Facilitating Inquiry in the Classroom*. This workshop is

based squarely upon the work of Richard Suchman, as elaborated by Fred E. Newton. It is planned to take 40 to 45 hours of meeting time, either in six full days with some follow-up or in 14 sessions more like the typical extension course.

The 436-page *Leader's Guide* combines at each stage the materials which the participants will have with materials needed only by the leader. The latter include precise scheduling directions for the activities, lists of materials needed at each point, models of instructions to be given for each activity, and a good deal of discussion of rationale for various projects along with seasoned advice on handling certain kinds of problems and responses.

The participants' materials are, of course, much briefer; to a large extent they are provided as "handouts" at appropriate points. There are arrangements for a few demonstrations by the leader and for listening to audio tapes, which are usually presented also in typescript form. Near the beginning the participants form themselves into trios (preferably of less well acquainted persons rather than of "old buddies"), and each two triads form into a "small group." These groupings remain in effect throughout the workshop.

The rest is mostly laboratory work, divided into brief and extremely specific stages. The whole process of permitting, encouraging, and leading free inquiry by students is broken down into almost microscopically fine bits of technique—with extended practice on every bit. A typical early exercise has one member of a triad presenting a concept, a second serving as "listener" (who has active duties of his own), and the third observing, with the help of an analytical guide. Then the observation report is discussed, after which the roles are revolved and each member gets a new kind of practice. At times the two-triad small groups work together, sometimes using a "fishbowl" technique in which one trio observes and reports back to the other. More rarely the whole workshop group (preferably of 24 members) gathers for general discussion led by the workshop leader. At times the participants develop written statements and test them on their colleagues. On a few occasions they make practice tapes. Always, in the background, there are audio tapes and other resource materials brought in from the outside, not so much as "models" as to loosen things up, provide some guidance, and furnish fodder for analysis and discussion.

It is hard to describe the richness of activity and thought, as the group moves slowly from almost over-simple initial exercises to more and more complex and creative syntheses of specifics into a pattern. The step-by-step instruction is formal—one almost wants to say "programmed"—and yet it is open all the way, with maximum protection

and acceptance of the legitimacy of reluctance and fearfulness and disagreement. Even to one who only reads the volumes, without sharing the real experience, the cumulative effect is dynamic and inspiring.

In addition to *Facilitating Inquiry in the Classroom*, the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory has several other programs in use; they include:

Cross-Age Peer Help, a package of materials developed by Ronald and Peggy Lippitt at the University of Michigan, with a manual for a two-day start-up workshop developed at the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory by Ken Ames and Carol Hollar

Research Utilizing Problem Solving, by Charles Jung, René Pino, and Ruth Emory, stemming from the work of the National Training Laboratories (especially its Cooperative Project for Educational Development) and that of the Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge of the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan

Interaction Analysis, by John Hansen and Robert Anderson based on the work of Ned Flanders

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction, by James R. Hale and R. Allan Spanjer

Interpersonal Communications (for administrators as well as teachers), by Charles Jung, Ruth Emory, René Pino, and Rosalie Howard

Interpersonal Influence, by Ruth Emory, Charles Jung, René Pino, Gary Boyles; with consultants Evelyn Challis, Robert Crosby, and Lucille Schaible

Preparing Educational Training Consultants I: Skills Training, by René Pino, Ruth Emory, and Charles Jung

Preparing Educational Training Consultants II: Consultation, by René Pino, Ruth Emory, and Charles Jung.

The complete plan of the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory is to produce 24 of these training programs. They fall into six categories. A complete description, along with the rationale for this work and an account of how these programs are being developed, evaluated, and disseminated, is available in the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's report "Improving Teaching Competencies Program: Basic Program Plans."

For each of the established programs there is a "Technical Report" which describes the program and its rationale and presents evidence of its effectiveness. To date, the research on strengths and weaknesses is fairly sketchy; quite a bit of it is of the teacher self-report type. Never-

theless, enough evidence is cited to indicate (a) a high level of enthusiastic acceptance by teachers, and (b) a significant impact on actual classroom practice.

The prices of the printed materials (Leader's Guide plus sets of materials for participants) are modest. So are the costs of ancillary materials (such as films, audio tapes, and demonstrative equipment). The greatest costs will probably lie in the provision of substitutes, to release teachers for periods of full-time study. There are ways around this problem, especially in team-teaching situations. Nevertheless, this factor will almost surely present a temptation to resort once again to the stale format of the late-afternoon or evening "class" meeting once a week with tired teachers. I hope we resist that temptation. If a district does not care enough about the quality of teaching to invest a few dollars in it, it had better examine its own commitments—and stop taking its profits out of the bones of weary teachers.

The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory is finding that partial uses of its systems yield negligible results. The investment of ten dollars per trainee in materials used in the full four and a half days of training in *Research Utilizing Problem Solving*, for example, can yield very significant results. A teacher or administrator will have skills and tools to conduct improvement efforts in the classroom or school building that gain significant changes. Part of what they learn is ways to work with colleagues and students to collect and use objective data which show whether and why things have improved.

Although the Northwest Lab operates primarily in the states of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, Alaska, Hawaii, and the territories of Guam and Samoa, its regional representatives are available to contract for start-up workshops in every part of the country. Its materials are now in use in more than 25 states. The head of the section of the Laboratory which produces these series is Norman K. Hamilton. The coordinator of the Improving Teaching Competencies Program is Charles C. Jung. For information, write to: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 700 Lindsay Building, 710 S.W. Second Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204.

As I look back across the work of these two laboratories—so different and yet, underneath those differences, so similar—I cannot help feeling that here, truly, is something new under the sun. Teachers who have been subjected for years to vague, sketchy, and moralistic talk about processes they ought to use must find enormous relief in getting down to cases and learning how to do it. And yet, because the emphasis is consistently on *process*, the result should not be any set of stereotyped

and closed "new methods." Quite the contrary, the result may well be a dramatic rise in openness, both in the classroom and within the teacher himself.

Not the least of my satisfaction comes from the heightened independence of the teachers in these systems. One does not have to view the materials as either "self-administrative" or "leader-proof" to see that they open the way for teachers to take initiative and responsibility; to learn from their own experience, guided and accompanied by feedback; and to work in an atmosphere of congenial teamwork, without having some "superior" inspect them and tell them how to do their work.

If this seems derogatory of traditional supervision, it is meant to be only partly so. The essential functions of supervision will remain. Yet, with much of the load of bare skills-teaching off their backs, supervisors will be able to move to higher ground. And—what may be more important—with much of the load of critique-delivering off their backs, supervisors may be able to move genuinely into the teachers' circle of collegiality.

Interaction Analysis

IF I HAD to choose just one tool with which to take the process of teaching apart to see what makes it tick—and thereby improve the process—that tool would be interaction analysis. It can be used in conjunction with microteaching; it can be coupled with audiotaping or videotaping; it can be spliced onto various forms of simulated practice or even onto varied sessions of sensitivity training. Yet, while each of these media has something to contribute, they are all relatively helpless unless they are accompanied by some form of systematic analysis.

That broad statement does not dictate any one form or system of analysis. In fact, the beauty of the situation is that, once an analytical mind-set has been established and some basic techniques have been learned, a tremendous variety of ways and means opens out. A number of formal systems are already available commercially, to guide educators who wish to learn and use sophisticated processes of analysis. Even beyond this, those who have once mastered one or more such systems

can easily devise their own adaptations to study whatever seems especially important to them.

Whenever interaction analysis is mentioned, the name of Ned Flanders is likely to pop into one's mind, because, beginning in about 1957, he formulated the first popular system by that name. In doing so, Flanders leaned heavily upon prior "classroom climate" studies by such men as H. H. Anderson, Robert Bales, Morris L. Cogan, and John Withall. Nevertheless, his work was distinctive in crystallizing a long line of effort into specific form, generally usable not only for research but also for private inquiry and self-improvement.

The system which Flanders evolved has by now become familiar, at least in broad outline, to most educators. It incorporates several basic choices. For example, it assumes that the key to what goes on in the classroom is the *verbal* interaction of teacher and students; therefore, its analysis is entirely devoted to what is verbal. In this respect its only categories are teacher talk, student talk, and silence or confusion. Within this verbal realm, it assumes that the *teacher*'s verbal initiations and responses are the key to the situation; therefore its finest analysis is devoted to the teacher's verbal moves, dividing them into seven categories. (Not so incidentally, built in here is an image of the teacher "in charge" and perhaps even of the teacher "up-front" of a class as a whole; the system may possibly be adaptable to the more open situation typified by the British primary schools, but that is certainly not its native *milieu*.)

In other words, Flanders assumed a critical role for teacher *influence*. Very early, he became deeply interested in the relative extent to which a teacher exercises that influence in "direct" and controlling ways and to what extent the influence is exerted in "indirect" fashion. The seven categories reflect this division and lead to calculations of an "I/D ratio"—the ratio of indirect to direct verbal behavior.

This ratio is anything but a mere statistical artifact. It represents a deep theoretical and philosophical base. Ned Flanders has never been so unsophisticated as to fall for a simplistic slogan of "indirect is better" —though all too many casual observers seem to think that is the moral of his story. He has always assumed that all teachers necessarily and desirably use a substantial amount of direct behavior. Nevertheless, he evidently started with a theory that even small differences in the amount of time and effort a teacher puts into certain types of indirect behavior will have great effect upon the nature of a classroom—and experience has borne him out.

In a crude, oversimplified way, the proposition might run something like this: A sensitive recognition and acceptance of students' feel-

ings, coupled with a judicious but generous use of process support, and backed by responsiveness to student ideas and the ability to build further upon them, will lead to greater responsiveness in students, a more fluent generation of ideas, greater autonomy—and, in the long run, not only to a better affective climate but also to greater cognitive productivity.

In some sense paralleling the categories of direct and indirect teacher behaviors, the system provides two categories of student talk: roughly speaking, that which is simply response to teacher questions, directions, etc., and that which is more spontaneous, original, and student-initiated. Analysis of average classrooms generally reveals a very high preponderance of the former; an obvious ideal of the system is to produce a shift to a healthy balance of the two types. The ideal obviously represents an *a priori* value position, but it is one to which virtually all supervisory persons will subscribe.

However, we are getting ahead of our story. The first essential of any system of analysis is a set of categories, each defined as clearly as possible, which, taken together, account for all behaviors of the type that is to be studied. The Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC) provide ten categories of verbal behavior: seven of teacher talk, two of student talk, one for silence or confusion. Each of these is assigned a number.

The second essential is a system or, better, systems of encoding the behaviors observed. Flanders describes two basic procedures. One may simply jot down the observed behaviors as they occur, on a time-line. This has the advantage of permitting a complete reconstruction later of the series of events, but it is awkward for any quantification. Or one may tally the behaviors into the appropriate cells of a prepared matrix. FIAC behaviors are tallied in a 10 x 10 matrix. Of course, the second type of record may be derived from the first, without much difficulty.

In either case the observer is trained to record on the average one bit of behavior each three seconds. And he always records by pairs. Thus he may jot down "4-8" or place a tally in the 4-8 cell if the teacher asks a question and a student answers it. The record would be 4-4 if the teacher used more than three seconds in the asking, or 8-8 if the student gave a longer answer.

A third essential is, of course, a system or variety of systems of decoding and interpreting the record. We shall come back to that later; suffice it to say at this point that an amazing range of interpretive refinements quickly open out, once the basic system is mastered.

The first step for any person or group wishing to employ the system is to memorize the categories and gain a clear concept of each. The next step is to practice, first on typescripts and/or audio or video tapes, finally

in "live" situations. Ideally, at this point, the learner should have the help of a trained observer, and periodic cross-checks should be made with the trainer and other observers to move everyone toward reasonably uniform encoding and high interobserver reliability. For purposes of formal research, such reliability is essential, and the necessary expert help should not be hard to find. But for purposes of self-development and local staff use, consistency may be a sufficient criterion. And Ned Flanders' own book, *Analyzing Teacher Behavior*, published by the Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, presents so excellent a body of instructions that a group might well start up without much other help.

I have a hunch that administrators and teachers have hung back from using this and other analytical systems largely because they think it is a terribly complex and difficult process. Such fears are unjustified. About a dozen hours of training and practice are enough for a starter (no great amount of time compared to that taken by many in-service courses). After that, to be sure, many additional refinements of analysis and interpretation will become appropriate, but they can be acquired over time as the inquiries deepen and specialize—and that will be fun. In reality, the acquisition of the necessary skills need not be viewed as any great hurdle.

Probably an even higher psychological barrier is raised by the teacher's initial fear of being so closely observed. The prospect of having someone come in and tick off each "bit" of one's behavior may justifiably be seen as something awesome. Perhaps there is no way of keeping the water from looking pretty cold before the first plunge, no matter how many people tell you that it will feel just fine once you are in. But there are some things to do which will ease the preliminary tension.

First, the teachers whose work is to be observed and analyzed should be those—and only those—who genuinely want to be in on the effort. Even then, they should have complete freedom to get out—without prejudice—at any later stage, if they feel like it. I shall not add here all the usual homilies to the effect that ventures like this succeed only where there is warm supportiveness, mutual confidence, and an "open" climate—but they all apply.

Second, the teachers who are to be involved should themselves be in on the training. They should know the categories; that is, know what is being observed. They should have enough practice in coding and interpreting so that they feel comfortably at home with the system. In summer workshops or in during-the-year in-service offerings, it should be easy to introduce the skills and practice them in nonthreatening simulated practice or microteaching *external to* the teacher's own classroom. In such groups the members can rotate between performing and

observing roles, and much of the tension can be dissolved before the process comes home to one's own central work, where he is bound to be most ego-involved.

Third, there must be careful thought as to who does the observing and for what purposes it is done. At least initially, teachers may feel much more comfortable in a program of interobservation in a partnership of peers than under observation by some "superior." They may even prefer to be observed by some outside expert, awesome as that may sound, so long as he is external to the chain of administrative command. For teachers need to be very sure that the process is not aimed at "rating" them—if that is honestly the fact. If there are adequate opportunities for involvement in the preparatory stages, it should be easy to shift most of the responsibility and initiative to the teachers' collegial peer group; there is no reason that some supervisory person should remain the only one expert enough to encode or interpret an observation. As more and more preservice programs utilize systems of analysis, there will be a growing supply of young teachers very much at home with the process.

Still, all this puts the whole thing much too mechanistically. What we are really after is a spirit of vigorous inquiry. "Continuing, professional self-development," says Flanders, "is a kind of perpetual inquiry." Thousands of teachers have long yearned to improve their own teaching. So far, they have largely been in the position of a golfer trying to cure his slice without knowing what his swing really looks like. If, beginning simply, such teachers find that a system such as interaction analysis genuinely feeds back to them what they need to know, their commitment to self-improvement will deepen. As they find "leads" to some answers, new questions will occur to them, and their inquiry will grow increasingly functional and intelligent.

An ever-increasing pile of practical experience testifies that once free groups of teachers get into a useful mode of self-improving inquiry and practice, the tension dissolves, they talk code language facilely and look at their own evolving patterns of behavior objectively and with relatively uninhibited curiosity. Maybe the key to all this is simply that, perhaps for the first time, *they can really do something about what they learn.*

Does Interaction Analysis "Work"?

Interaction analysis has thus far been treated entirely in terms of Ned Flanders and FIAC. He is not the only worker in this vineyard; nor is FIAC the only system. There are many good minds in this field, and a variety of systems. We shall look briefly at some of them a bit later. FIAC, however, is the oldest and most widely known; many of

the later categorizations have deliberately been designed to be consonant with it; and it is fairly common practice, even among those who mean later to use other systems, to start the training of new practitioners with FIAC and then branch out.

Nevertheless, before going on to those other plans, let us simply use "interaction analysis" as a generic term covering many variants, and take a look at what is known about its effects. What follows is not intended to be a formal review of research.

1. When teachers have practice in analyzing teaching and get feedback on their own teaching performance, most of them do tend to build what they learn into their daily behavior. This is "the big one." They do change. Their patterns of teaching behavior do shift (though the permanence of the changes is still in need of study). Various studies have quantified the degree of change on particular variables. There is no way to quantify the changes as a whole. But it can be said that the changes reported in studies are generally clearly significant.

2. Teachers experienced in interaction analysis become more responsive to the ideas of their pupils and use a wider variety of questions to evoke those ideas. There is some evidence that as this occurs the proportion of pupil-initiated or free and creative student response also rises.

3. There is evidence that many teachers tend to move in the direction of a more "indirect" style. That is, they exert their influence less by direct control and tend to create a more "open," supportive, and flexible classroom. This statement must not lead one to expect huge quantitative shifts. What interaction analysis measures most directly is the amount and proportion of time teachers and pupils spend in various categories of verbal behavior. If one looks at the report matrices of a group of "indirect" teachers and compares them with those of a group of "direct" teachers, he may not find any great differences in the amount of "lecture" (information-giving), in the number of questions asked, or even in the amount of praise given. The differences are likelier to be subtle, low-percentage shifts in the recognition of feelings, in accepting and building upon student contributions, in asking more questions of higher orders, and in using brief "lectures" that are highly responsive to student "moves." The important thing is that such quantitatively small shifts apparently have a disproportionate impact on total classroom climate.

The inevitable question, then, is whether such a spectrum shift toward the indirect is "good." The question is a real one, for many

teachers and laymen alike are fearful of the results of a lessening of direct control and straightforward, businesslike task-ordering by the teacher.

The general answer is pretty clearly *yes*. For most typical teachers, a shift toward more "indirect" patterning will prove productive. (This has to be taken in measured terms. Certainly any crude conclusion that everything indirect is good and everything direct is bad is silly. The best "indirect teachers" use a great deal of "direct" process. And there are teachers who are so weakly "permissive" and lacking in strong initiative that they produce nothing much but chaos and confusion.)

The evidence is of two sorts. First, many studies have started by first identifying small groups of teachers judged in various ways to be unusually effective or unusually ineffective. When the classroom practices of these teachers are then analyzed, a high incidence of indirectness will be found in the better group and a high incidence of directness in the poorer group. In her somewhat differently measured study, Marie Hughes, for example, found the poorer teachers using mostly "closed" questions and responses, while the better ones used more "open" tactics. A thoughtful move toward indirectness, one may say then, is a move in the direction of what superior teachers already tend to do.

Second, there is a body of criterion-referenced studies which have correlated pupil results with teaching patterns. There is considerable variability in detail among such studies. But, by and large, the answer comes out clear: "indirect teaching" tends to produce both a better affective tone and greater cognitive learning. On the logic, one is forced (at least, *I* am forced) to believe also that it will generate more desirable personal qualities in learners (for example, autonomy, independence, creativity).

In short, the systematic analysis of teaching behaviors, including one's own, and the repeated use of sophisticated feedback on one's own styles may well produce changes which tend to be to the good. Learning to apply one or more systems of analysis may well be the cornerstone of planned progress in a teacher's long-term growth.

Related Systems of Observation and Analysis

The number of instruments for structured classroom observation runs into the dozens. Some of these antedate the Flanders system, going all the way back to the work of Ernest Horn in 1914. No attempt will be made here to inventory or even to summarize these instruments, most of which have been designed and used only for research purposes anyway. Anyone who wishes to look into what is available might well consult the near-encyclopedic 14-volume *Mirrors for Behavior: An Anthology*

of Observation Instruments or at least its unnumbered "Summary" volume. The anthology was developed between 1967 and 1970 by Anita Simon and E. Gil Boyer and distributed by Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1700 Market Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19103. (The material may now be purchased in a two-volume paperback set. Volume A contains all the commentary materials, bibliographies, etc., along with descriptions of the 26 systems originally listed in 1968. Volume B describes 52 additional systems.)

For us, it will be more to the point to consider a few recent developments which are of direct use to practitioners in the field. One line of development has been the refinement of categories, usually leading to a larger number. Flanders himself has produced an expanded version of his 10-point categorization by "subscripting" several of his categories. Thus, his original category 4, "Asks questions," becomes, in effect, two categories: "Asks narrow questions . . . emphasizing recall" and "Asks broad, general, open questions which clearly permit a choice of response. Asks opinion." A few of the original categories have as many as three or four subscripts, for a total of 22 choices.

Such elaborations arise, of course, because of a desire to catch more precisely the nature of each transaction. Under the original Flanders category of "Silence or Confusion," for instance, there is a world of difference between "Nonconstructive use of time" and "Constructive use of time." Taken all together, a 22-category system may be so unwieldy as to be useless to anybody except highly trained specialists. Yet frequently, at some stages of the game, supervisors and teachers may wish to concentrate for a while on just one or a very few variables, such as the nature of the questions asked and the responses received. Then the closer analysis may be perfectly easy to use, and it will yield far richer interpretations. (Of course, at such a point, teachers can easily formulate a few points they want to look at in particular for their own private purposes. There is no need for these to be like those of any general system. However, there is one advantage in the subscripted version of a standard system, in that the subtotals can be collapsed back into the original categories for statistical comparison.)

Several other scholars have worked up category systems which they have deliberately kept rather closely consonant with the Flanders system. These may have 16 or 18 categories and the numbering comes out somewhat different, but anyone who is familiar with FIAC will feel at home with them and should be able to shift from one to another with relative ease. This is true, for instance, of the Amidon Modified Category System, which incorporates the Flanders categories but also incorporates discriminations from other systems with a more cognitive weighting.

(Edmund J. Amidon was one of those who originally worked very closely with the development of the Flanders system in Minnesota. Later, at Temple University, he worked with his colleagues on very extensive experimentation with interaction analysis.) The Amidon-Hunter Verbal Interaction Category System (VICS) goes after still more detailed information, with some attention to nonverbal behaviors. This system has achieved rather broad use. At least a half-dozen other systems could be named which play one sort of variation or another on the Flanders theme.

However, there are also observation instruments which are built very differently because, from the beginning, they went after different sorts of information and analysis. Thus Hilda Taba built a distinctive system, which has had rather wide use, to fit her hypotheses about teaching strategies and the interaction of content and method. B. O. Smith, in his extended studies of the logic and strategies of teaching, naturally developed observation schemes consonant with his objectives. So also did Arno Bellack when he was studying the "language of the classroom" and analyzing teacher "moves." Both the Bellack and the Smith systems naturally place heavy emphasis on the cognitive side and on the intellectual substance of the classroom.

A venture unique in the area of interaction analysis is that of Charles Galloway of the Ohio State University. Perceiving that interaction analysis, taken as a whole, not only accepts but perhaps even encourages the predominance of the verbal element in teaching, Galloway has concentrated on the *non*verbal side. He has developed a seven-category coding system.

Because nonverbal communication yields less easily than verbal communication to precise classification, the categories in the Galloway system remain fairly global. Nevertheless, a teacher receiving feedback on this important dimension of communication is likely to be greatly sensitized to his own and other people's nonverbal behaviors. Galloway has laid his system alongside the Flanders categories and produced a workable system of coding verbal and nonverbal aspects at the same time. Here the search is partly for congruence or incongruence: Do the teacher's nonverbal behaviors reinforce or cancel out what he says? It seems to me that this joint analysis must be especially profitable.

In addition to building a formal system, Galloway has written fairly extensively about nonverbal cues and their interpretations among various ethnic groups and social classes. One good statement is an article in the April 1968 *Instructor* (77: 37-42). Another, which includes his formal plan and the system of tying it to FIAC, is a monograph, *Teaching Is Communicating: Nonverbal Language in the Classroom*,

published by the Association of Teacher Educators, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036; 1970. (Stock No. 867-24482.)

Finally, there is the work being done by Paul M. Allen and several associates at the University of Arizona and New Mexico State University. This group and others in the Southwest have been making exceptionally sensitive use of self-appraisal systems and the new media in in-service education. Out of their extensive and varied experience they have produced a highly readable booklet, *Teacher Self-Appraisal: A Way of Looking Over Your Own Shoulder*, Charles A. Jones Publishing Co., Worthington, Ohio 43085; 1970.

This is a remarkably helpful booklet. Its style is delightful and it starts in a disarmingly simple way with a step-by-step discussion of how observation systems are put together—and how they may be "played with." Growing more and more specific, it describes one code (the Roberson Code) rather fully and explains its use. It goes on to some rather explicit helps on the use of audio and video taping equipment. It concludes with four appendices: (a) Selected Research; (b) Four Examples of In-Service Programs; (c) Recording Equipment; and (d) Selected Bibliography of Instruments.

This last serves as a guide to sources of the background materials one is likely to need. Even so, the greatest value of the booklet may lie in its ability to reduce a lot of high-flown stuff to simple common sense and create a feeling of relaxation.

Microteaching

MICROTEACHING IS so simple in basic concept that one wonders why it had to wait until 1963 to be invented. The Stanford University faculty developed it after trying some other devices to inject more action, interest, and realistic functionalness into their preservice summer program for interns. Previously they had toyed with the use of a "demonstration teaching lesson," using peers as students in a highly structured role-playing system. But such exercises had proved too artificial and too diffuse as well as too threatening to satisfy them.

Once microteaching was introduced it caught on rapidly. The students valued it highly, and the faculty quickly saw preliminary

evidence of substantial gains. Perhaps the first features which attracted favorable attention were:

1. It was *real*. No matter how brief the lesson or how few the students, it was real teaching.

2. It was simple. It permitted concentrating on one or two component skills at a time.

3. It was brief; consequently, even in a limited time space, each student could have a series of experiences in a highly focused and controlled sequence.

4. It yielded immediate feedback on specific points. As soon as his brief teaching was over, the student had a critique of his performance. This might be delivered to him by his supervisor and/or his fellow students, whom he would observe in turn. It might be based in part on study of his video tape. It probably included brief evaluative summaries from his pupils. And regardless of how the critique was done, it could be focused sharply upon the particular skills he was practicing.

5. On the basis of the feedback, it was natural to replan the lesson and teach it to a new group. This could be repeated as necessary to establish mastery of given skills.

6. It was safe. Trying his hand at a variety of techniques, the neophyte risked no disaster even if he failed for the moment. He would have many chances, no one of them crucial. And his pupils were hardly likely to be damaged in the brief lesson and the protective environment even if he did fall on his face.

The system at Stanford soon fell into a recognizable pattern which could be scheduled on a regular basis. The most common teaching time for a microlesson was four or five minutes, though later in the game for special purposes it might be 10 or even 20 minutes. The number of pupils taught was typically three, four, or five, though in the longer lessons the number might go up somewhat. The intern planned a highly delimited lesson and at the same time planned to practice one or two specific skills. After he did his teaching his performance was analyzed with him, mostly in terms of those skills. It just happened that in 1963 Stanford had acquired an early model video tape recorder, so considerable use was made of video tapes; but the system was not tied to their use, and the help of the supervisor was the big element even when a tape was used. In the Stanford setup the intern quickly replanned his lesson in about 15 minutes and immediately retaught it, with another feedback session following right away.

The idea soon spread to other preservice institutions, and in a little while it was adapted to in-service use. Naturally, variations entered in. Furthermore, at Stanford and elsewhere, necessary elaborations of the several parts were developed and studied.

The first of these elaborations had to do with the component skills themselves. If a faculty meant to teach a series of skills, one or two at a time, it had to break down the instructional program into its component skills, define each one clearly, and find ways of teaching it. Mostly on the basis of common-sense reasoning, the Stanford group came up with a list that included such items as: stimulus variation; closure; silence and nonverbal cues; probing questions; higher-order questions; lecturing; and planned repetition.

Whatever the skills selected, ways had to be developed to teach each one in advance of the practice sessions. A faculty could discuss a skill with the teacher or provide written materials about it; it could demonstrate the skill, perhaps in a role-playing way; it could provide audio tapes, typescripts, and/or films to set forth models. As we have already seen, the Far West Laboratory went heavily into the use of model films. The Northwest Laboratory made greater use of audio tapes and typescripts. Whatever form is used, it has become clear that a concentrated—even if artificial—and repetitious presentation of model examples is highly effective.

Another variable lies in the nature of the lesson to be taught. In the early days it was common to have all the student teachers teach the same lesson, prescribed in general outline by someone else. Some of this is still done. But the trend has gone toward having each teacher select his own subject matter and do his own planning. Especially at the secondary level, this is more "real," and in any case the teacher is likely to feel more comfortable.

The length of the microlesson is also subject to variation. Four or five minutes seems a terribly short time; teachers generally want "a little more time" (regardless of how much they have). But experience seems to show that in the earlier stages, when single, isolated skills are to be practiced, the time variable is not all that important. Significant experience can be had and feedback generated in a half-dozen or so minutes. Thus in its triad activities on basic skills, the Northwest Laboratory often rotates on about a six-minute module. However, when more complex activities are being put together—especially by experienced teachers—a longer teaching time may be desirable. The Far West Laboratory makes much use of about a 20-minute module.

When more time is available, more pupils can be involved; but that does not necessarily follow. Even in its longer periods, the Far West

Laboratory still suggests about a half-dozen. Of course, if videotaping is employed, the size of the group which can be caught on one camera is an important consideration. Probably, for people who have not worked with microteaching, there will be a temptation, which ought to be resisted, to make the lesson too big, the group too large, and the time too long. For it is hard to imagine that enough can be done otherwise.

In the whole scheme of microteaching the quality of the feedback obtained is almost surely the most crucial element—even more so than the practice itself. As we have said, Stanford, beginning with preservice interns, relied primarily upon the supervisor, even when video tape was available. The supervisors themselves needed to do quite a bit of learning. Their first tendency was to concentrate on the negative side and pick too much at mistakes. Furthermore, accustomed to making global, atmospheric commentaries on long, complex periods of teaching, they had to learn to focus on one or a few particulars being practiced.

Supervisors especially had to learn a judicious use of video tapes. They tended to rely on them either too little or too much, sometimes virtually ignoring them, sometimes just rerunning the whole lesson. They had to learn to select bits to illustrate a point, starting and stopping the tape, moving around in it. Like teachers, some of them had to learn to talk less; they lectured at the student at the same time he was trying to hear the tape, with the result that he heard neither. The conclusion is irresistible that micro-*supervision*, with feedback of its own, would be useful. It should be easy to set up.

In a preservice situation it is, of course, easy to provide for peer-group critiques. Small groups of students can rotate in their roles as teachers and observers—and learn much in each phase. Such arrangements are easy to find among the many schools of education which now utilize microteaching.

It is also common to bring in feedback from the pupils being taught. Often they are given a brief reporting form which they can fill out in a minute or two at the end of the lesson. In some cases they are "trained" a bit; that is, they are told what is to be practiced and what to look for. In any case, it seems wise to prepare the pupils a little; they can be told in a disarming way that teachers keep trying to learn new skills so they can teach better and that today's teacher is going to be deliberately practicing to teach in a certain way. By common report, children and youth like being called on to provide such help, and cooperate eagerly.

At the University of California, Los Angeles, W. James Popham is experimenting with still another form of data gathering. In a pre-student-teaching education course, he has each student microteach several times. Popham provides the substance of a microlesson in a three- or

four-page write-up. All students teach the same lesson. At the end they take out of a sealed envelope and administer a brief test on the lesson, provided by Popham. The next day all the students bring their pupil scores to class, and compare. Great variations show up in the average achievements. Apparently, no attempts have been made to put together this sort of data with the commonly used pupil self-reports, which tend to be more on the affective side. It would seem that some combination of the two might be useful—if it did not lead to an overanxious examination of results instead of process.

In work with experienced teachers, sole consideration can hardly be given to technical factors, when choosing a feedback system. How the teachers *feel* about the matter may be the most important factor of all. Probably as a result of this, in-service uses of microteaching tend to lean less upon—even to avoid the use of—supervisor judgments. Thus, the Far West Laboratory makes a great point of the privacy of the teacher's video tape, even though Flanders, who is in charge there, believes that the system becomes more fruitful as supervisors are voluntarily brought into it. The Northwest Laboratory, in its skills-practice sessions, depends heavily upon mutual peer-group help, with the members rotating through various roles of actor and observer. It is to be noted also that this activity is away from the teacher's own classroom, in a special situation which is presumably less threatening. When the teachers are forming themselves into triads and small groups, they are even encouraged to team up with relative strangers, rather than with persons too close to home.

It is probable that most in-service programs in local situations strive for some of these same protections. For example, the relative informality of a summer workshop, away from one's own building, may provide reassurance in the ice-breaking stages. And when a group of like-minded adventurers voluntarily team up to help one another, the constraints will be low indeed. If such a group can grow accustomed to the routines in a summer situation, it can probably bring them back to the home building with relative comfort.

At least with reference to experienced teachers, there are no sure data to show one form of feedback superior to another. Video tape is a powerful medium, though audio tape is satisfactory for some purposes, but neither is essential. There is some evidence that teachers learn better from their peers than from critiques handed down by a supervisor. Probably two conditions really are essential:

1. The teachers must feel comfortable and safe as they venture into new areas. After all, the purpose of the whole thing, for each teacher,

is to enter into a long-range self-inquiry and self-development quest. For this, a maximum of autonomy and freedom is necessary.

2. There must be some form of systematic structure to the analysis which follows microteaching. Some adaptation of interaction analysis would work. One of the guides produced by the various laboratories or other centers might help. The form is unimportant so long as all the participants know exactly what they are after.

One final variable lies in the "cycle" of teaching and reteaching. In the original Stanford setup two microteaching experiences were packed into one period. The first was followed by a critique session and then by replanning the lesson; the second was followed again by a critique session with the possibility of an added element of *comparison* between the first and second sessions. In the minicourses of the Far West Laboratory, using longer microlessons, a period of two days is allowed for the teacher to analyze his video tape and replan his attack.

No one "best" pattern has emerged. Common sense is as good a guide as any, taking into account problems which may arise in scheduling. For that matter, there is nothing sacred or invariable about the whole idea of a second round of teaching. It seems to be useful, but it is not always included.

Related Uses of the Microteaching Idea

Maybe we need to remind ourselves that classroom teachers are not the only ones who need improved skills. The basic format of microteaching can easily be adapted to an examination of supervisory practices. It has already been used in the further self-improvement of *counselors*.

The format adaptation is easy to see. What must be remembered is that there will have to be: (a) a clear listing of component skills to be practiced; and (b) some system of analysis and feedback. Not everything may be susceptible of precise and immediate description, but we need all the precision we can generate.

Does Microteaching Work?

The most comprehensive scholarly data are available on the preservice use of microteaching. Here, two kinds of findings are reported: (a) Interns and student teachers who have had microteaching experiences tend to perform at a superior level. (b) In brief programs no superiority may be shown, but a normal level of competence is achieved in far less

time. In either case, at least over the fairly short terms that have been measured, the acquired skills *last*. They appear to have become part of the teacher's habit patterns. There is a further important factor: the students value microteaching highly, and it generates in them a more positive attitude toward professional education.

With in-service teachers also, there is evidence that real gains are made swiftly and that they last in actual practice. Furthermore, microteaching can give a mighty assist to change and innovation. The shift to the new math, for example, would probably have been made much more successfully than it was if teachers had had a chance to "rehearse" the distinctive styles of action it called for. In almost every field, nowadays, teachers are being urged to adopt new curriculum that calls for new teaching styles. Rarely do they have a chance to acquire both skill and comfort with it before they are plunged headlong into all the complexities of the full program.

The establishment of a microteaching clinic may well be a very worthwhile venture for a school system. The values of such a clinic go far beyond the acquisition of some cluster of teaching skills—important as that is in its own right. We need a variety of means to express and facilitate our eternal quest for better teaching—and a microteaching clinic stands out as one of those means. Obviously, it should not have to stand by itself. The analytical schemes already discussed are basic, and can be brought to focus in the clinic. The new medium of videotaping is a powerful aid, and can be used most handily in an organized clinic. Above all, the provision of an organized, easy-to-use facility where teachers can carry on their own continuing quests in peace and comfort may change the whole view of what is possible.

Helpful References

The initiation of microteaching is no terribly technical thing, but there are always some practical problems. The slender book, *Microteaching*, by Dwight Allen and Kevin Ryan, is highly informative. It was published in 1969 by the Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. Because it begins with a full account of the original venture at Stanford, it takes the reader by easy stages through the development of a program. It describes programs in a variety of preservice and in-service situations. There is an excellent bibliography.

In our earlier discussion of the Far West Laboratory, we mentioned *Minicourses Work*, Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (Stock Number 1780-0863.) This is a completely explicit manual for a microteaching clinic which

employs videotaping. Most of it would apply whether videotaping can be used or not.

On the research side, a pamphlet, *Microteaching: Selected Papers*, provides a quick summary. It was published in 1971 as ATE Research Bulletin 9 by the Association of Teacher Educators in conjunction with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education. (Order from Customer Service Section, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036. Stock Number 868-24464.)

Clinical Supervision

BACK IN THE middle fifties, a group of supervisors working in Harvard's Master of Arts in Teaching program faced up to a serious problem. The MAT approach to teacher education was still new and experimental; its students were highly capable liberal arts graduates without previous professional education; the curriculum itself omitted much of the usual theoretical preparation for teaching and depended heavily on closely supervised introductory experience; hence, it was imperative that that experience should be a valid and effective induction into good teaching. Many of the students did not think it was, and they tended to pin the failure on the supervisors. Years later, one of those supervisors, Morris L. Cogan, was to write wryly:

> Their testimony about this failure was full and convincing: university supervisors did too little or too much; what they did, did not make sense, did not offer much real help to them in becoming teachers. So too for their cooperating teachers—many were well meaning but unskilled; others were either indifferent or full of fervor and hell-bent on delivering intact their own personal revelation about how to teach, whether their defenseless student teachers wanted that particular revelation or not.

That group of supervisors must have been remarkable educators, for they not only solicited feedback from their students but also paid attention to it; and they not only gathered data but they did something about what they learned. Out of their honesty has come a long, hard study of supervision, with much initial groping and experimental fumbling and gradually sharpening perception of what must be done.

One active center of this investigation has remained in the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Its thought is perhaps best represented

by *Supervision: The Reluctant Profession*, by Ralph L. Mosher and David E. Purpel, published in 1972 by the Houghton Mifflin Company. This is a sharply probing, mind-stretching book, questioning just about everything in teaching and supervision—including the authors' own work—and yet getting down to cases on the problem of "trying to educate teachers about the curriculum and how to teach it."

Another very active center of ferment is at the University of Pittsburgh, with Morris L. Cogan in a position of leadership. This center has generated many specialized studies and papers; but for the general reader, it is best represented by Cogan's *Clinical Supervision*, published in 1973 by Houghton Mifflin Company. This book is much more the straightforward, comprehensive textbook, with a full statement of rationale leading to explicit descriptions of process.

Cogan calls his system "clinical" supervision because, in true clinical style, it depends upon direct, trained observation of manifest behaviors in the classroom. It envisions a supervisor planning with a teacher, coming into the teacher's classroom to observe what happens, and then conferring with the teacher in an analytical and evaluative way which leads to further planning. Thus, in the terms of this monograph, clinical supervision is not so much "supervision in a new key" as it is traditional supervision with full orchestration and with every instrument finely tuned.

But to point out that the basic system—a supervisor making observations in a teacher's classroom—is "traditional," risks making it appear far more like conventional practice than it is. The difference is dramatically illustrated by Cogan's estimates of the supervisory time required: at least five hours a week in the case of a student teacher, and something like three or four hours a week for each in-service teacher involved. This does not mean that a school system is expected to provide that many hours per week for every teacher in its service, or that any given teacher must have that much supervisory help all the time. It simply means that, if we intend to help a teacher enough to bring about effective and lasting change, that kind of concentration is required. The system has no use for occasional, sporadic "visits" followed by a few global comments. "Teachers are better left alone," Cogan says flatly, "than simply tampered with."

Obviously, such a system will be expensive. It demands a sizable corps of supervisors backed up by a variety of specialized resource people: specialists in particular subject matters, psychologists, experts in group process, and so on. Yet if we are really playing for keeps, if we seriously mean to effect change, this is what it will take. The whole history of our schools—especially the most recent history—is littered with promising

innovations abandoned before they had any real chance to succeed: innovations, in John Goodlad's phrase, are "blunted on the classroom door." This has not always been the teachers' fault. Sometimes innovations have simply been "installed" by the administration without any teacher preparation at all; then, when the teachers' well-meant but amateurish first efforts fell short, the whole thing was quietly jettisoned. More often a few teachers have been "trained"—and then blandly expected to overcome the inertia and resistance of the rest; typically, even those few teachers are promoted or somehow lost to the classroom, and when they are gone scarcely a trace of what might have been a fine improvement remains to mar the quiet of the scene.

The payoff is in the classroom. Therefore, clinical supervision is deliberately mobilized as an in-class support system, delivering assistance directly to the classroom teacher.

In such a system the first consideration has to be the teacher himself. No matter how earnestly he wishes to improve, he is likely to feel jittery about being supervised. He may simply have the normal "human" reluctance to be exposed, in all his inadequacies; he may suspect that the supervisor's judgments will be used against him in an administrative evaluation; above all, he may simply have no real sense of purpose in the entire activity, no solid feeling that he will be helped.

Cogan assumes that such feelings are not only inevitable but also justifiable, and he takes them very seriously. In his "cycle of supervision," he proposes a long, careful work-up period *before the supervisor ever sets foot in the classroom.* For example, in the informal setting of a summer workshop, a group of teachers might work for several weeks with one or more supervisors. This takes the action away from their own classrooms, where any "threat" to them would be at its highest pitch. It provides opportunity for the growth of a friendly, collegial atmosphere, for a great deal of discussion of teaching problems and aspirations. Films illustrating a variety of practices can be viewed and discussed and perhaps subjected to some more or less formal system of analysis. The group may be able to visit "live" classes and think of them as a supervisor does. They may do bits of microteaching, either with children or within their own group, revolving in the roles of teacher and supervisor. They may study one or more systems of interaction analysis. They may plan lessons cooperatively and try them out.

In short—and this is virtually the heart of the system—the teacher himself is inducted into the role of the supervisor. He learns to think as a supervisor does, to observe clinically, and to focus on preplanned specifics. He comes to think in terms of specified purposes and criteria and then to compare actual teacher-and-student behavior—including

his own—to what was being attempted. Experience shows that in such a setting he will grow more and more objective about teaching and learning, and diagnostic analysis will become so routine that much of the tension evaporates.

Even so, group work will not be enough. Before there is actual observation in his classroom, each teacher must be prepared for the part he is to play. That part is *not* a passive one; he is not to be a mere "receiver" of supervision; he is to be a very active partner in a colleagueship. He must learn to take a highly active part in planning a lesson or a unit—after all, the lesson will be *his* lesson. After the lesson has been taught, he must expect to take an equally responsive and responsible role in the conference. He is the one who finally has to decide on the changes he will try for and the next steps he will commit himself to.

This conception is fundamentally different from the one commonly seen in operation. It expects the supervisor to deliver specific, expert help. But it does not cast him in the role of the "teacher's teacher." In fact, it rejects any subordinate/superordinate relationship at all. It depends on mutual trust and support in a shared task, developed by the agreement of both parties. Yet it is task oriented and does not rely on a "human relations" approach. The human relations are there, inevitably, but the focus is on teaching in action. And if deep-seated personal problems interfere with that, the supervisor is advised to refer them to other specialists.

Once the foundation has been laid, the operational cycle begins. It opens with the cooperative planning of a lesson. This has to be done very carefully, and it is assumed that—at least in the beginning—it will demand about a two-hour period. The planning is not simply of the subject matter to be taught, but also of specific modes of operation to be tried. The planning is a joint affair, but in the last analysis it is the teacher who must decide.

Then comes the observation—not the traditional global look, but a focused, objective recording of specifics. Audio or video tapes may be made, or a stenographic record may be used; certainly the supervisor will take copious notes. As soon as he can, the teacher also will reflect on what happened and put down his notes on salient points.

Finally there is the conference. Both parties will prepare for it, the supervisor with a full-fledged analysis. An optimum time will be sought for—and plenty of it. The place will be chosen with equal care—not necessarily in the supervisor's office, where there may be no chalkboard and no facilities for running a tape. The teacher and supervisor will join in deciding what most needs discussion. They will analyze the lesson, concentrating on a few salient points. This takes

very careful thought, for what they are really after is the *meaning* of whatever happened in the classroom, and that calls for far greater depth than just chatting about incidents. Then they will swing into planning next steps, deciding what adaptations to make. Once more, it is finally the teacher who must make the commitments. In fact, an important part of the supervisor's role may be to prevent the teacher's making commitments that are not congruent with his style and personality and not feasible in terms of his resources.

And so the cycle rolls on. With experience, some parts may be truncated, or elided altogether. The purpose is to focus more and more precisely on what needs doing. More and more, it may be possible to go beyond isolated incidents to discover *patterns* in a teacher's activities—patterns which may need changing, but, even more, patterns that are the foundations of his strength. Supervisors commonly approach their work as remediation, and emphasize a teacher's weaknesses—quite possibly because this meets some hidden need of their own. A much better approach is through the teacher's peculiar strengths, because these are really what one has to build on. As the collegial relationship builds strength, more and more sensitive matters can be handled. Yet there never will be a time when the basic human relationship itself will not need nurture.

All through the cycle there are plentiful opportunities to weave in the use of the devices we have discussed earlier in this paper: microteaching, the use of tapes, interaction analysis, and so on. Cogan seems a bit skeptical, especially of interaction analysis, though he makes a strong case for the studied use of nonverbal cues. Members of the Harvard group seem eager to deploy the modern instrumentalities wherever they can. A judicious intermingling of the various media of supervision could produce maximum effectiveness. To be sure, the human eye is better than any camera, and the trained intuition of an expert supervisor—using all the objective input he can get but finally making some great leaps on his own—seems indispensable. When a school can go still further and provide a *differentiated staff* of supervisory persons, their pooled insights will be still more valuable. Even so, if the teacher is also trained in systematic analysis and if he has the added advantages of microteaching, model films, tapes of his own performance, etc., surely he can throw himself into his own continuing quest with heightened intelligence and energy.

If this brief description of clinical supervision makes it sound like "what we have been doing all the time," then that is the fault of the description. Standard practice and clinical supervision do have one

element in common: classroom observation-cum-critique. Beyond that the difference is like that between a blunderbuss and a rifle.

To read Cogan's book—and the whole literature of clinical supervision—must be a sobering thing for anyone who does supervisory work. It punches great holes in the all-too-common smugness of the "teacher of teachers" concept. It treats almost with contempt the notion of the supervisor who is so wise, *ex officio*, that he can be "helper" and counselor on the entire range of human weaknesses and woes. It rejects the very idea of supervision characterized by picking at weaknesses—except when they are so critical that they simply have to take priority. It faces squarely the overt or covert reactions of teachers to supervision, ranging from a mild nervousness to open contempt.

Above all, this literature is demanding upon the supervisor. He does not have any business doing supervision if he has not trained himself to the level of refined technique. Beyond even that, he has to be willing to face himself, to analyze his own biases and prejudices, his needs for ego satisfaction and self-justification, his pressure to "deliver intact [his] own personal revelation about how to teach." He, just as much as any teacher, has his own "patterns," and needs in-service seminars and clinics to build his strengths. He, too, falls into "errors of certainty," taking it for granted that his way is *the* way. All too easily, he can become a ceiling over the teachers' heads instead of a floor under their feet.

Finally, it should be emphasized that clinical supervision is not meant to be the whole of supervision. It is simply the in-class part, relating to instruction as such. Cogan uses the term "general supervision" to refer to a whole congeries of out-of-class supervisory activities that go beyond the skills to a far broader base of staff development. We shall turn to that sector next.

Beyond the Skills: The Person Within the Teacher

UP TO THIS point we have been looking at the teacher primarily in terms of his skills—and therefore exploring supervisory possibilities with an eye to their ability to generate technique. Now, in this final section, we want to think of the teacher more in terms of himself—of his growth as a person—and that will lead us to a different order of questions about supervisory possibilities.

Common sense has known for a long time that the basic character and personality of a teacher are crucial to his teaching. (I myself coined a catch-sentence, "What a teacher *is* is more important than anything he *does*," long before I had much documentary evidence.) In recent years, a more studied analysis not only supports this intuitive belief but seems to go well beyond the common-sense view, to a new emphasis on the person.

For example, over a period of years Arthur W. Combs and a group of his associates at the University of Florida have been studying the differences between "good" and "poor" practitioners, not only among teachers but also among nurses, counselors, and Episcopal pastors. They did not find the distinctive differences they expected in what these people knew or in the body of "methods" they used. But when they took a "perceptual" approach and analyzed as best they could how these people perceived themselves and others as well as the nature of their work and of the world around them, they found very distinctive differences indeed. Put this another way: Over at least a half-century a long series of well documented studies have attempted to identify "the good teacher" in terms of some body of knowledge or practices—and failed miserably. Yet Combs and his associates came out feeling that they could spot the better teachers rather reliably even if they knew nothing about them except how they "saw" themselves, the people they worked with, and their own purposes.

Their studies were based, of course, on the major premise of perceptual psychology: that in any situation a human being's response is always determined by his perceptions, including his perception of himself. A chief characteristic of the helping professions, they came to realize, is that in hundreds of incidents per day the response has to be virtually instantaneous. Therefore, the real person comes through, no matter how good one might be at a kind of artificial role playing for

a short while, if he had more time. One's basic way of seeing things controls what he does.

The monograph summarizing these investigations, *Florida Studies in the Helping Professions*, published in 1969 by the University of Florida Press, Gainesville, is highly readable and most rewarding. In terms of their perceptions—to take a few examples—the more effective teachers were concerned with people rather than things, with perceptual meanings rather than facts and events. They saw other people as able, friendly, worthy, and helpful. They saw themselves as "enough" rather than lacking, as dependable and worthy, as wanted rather than unwanted. They saw their teaching task as freeing rather than controlling, as larger and more involved rather than as smaller and less involved, and as encouraging process rather than achieving goals.

As I look back over many studies, it strikes me that evidence consistent with such findings has been the general rule. Marie Hughes, for instance, found her superior teachers asking more questions and making more responses that had a quality of opening things up instead of closing them down. When Ned Flanders was working out his interaction analysis program and testing it on groups of recognizably better or poorer teachers, the better ones tended in the direction of the "indirect," open, supportive styles. In Ryans' huge Teacher Characteristics Study, a whole series of traits associated with the most outstanding teachers could almost be subsumed under the one word, *generosity*. These experienced teachers, with no lack of realism in their experience, tended to see their colleagues and students as decent, well-meaning people who could be trusted and depended upon.

Long before Suchman explicated inquiry methods, there were teachers who opened up the world to free exploration. Their techniques could be sharpened, but their instincts were already in that direction. Long before Taba built her stairway to the higher processes of thought, there were teaching geniuses helping their students search for the general answer. Long before the whole development of modern psychology there were teachers whose greatest gift to their learners was unfailing support.

All this may seem commonplace. But have we seen clearly enough that what is at work here is not a body of method—though the techniques can be sharpened into expertise—but rather the *expression of a person*? I think not. There has been an unspoken assumption that a competent teacher, armed with the right knowledge and skills, could do the job.

Yet, more and more, we perceive that the only teacher (assuming a decent competence) who can really do the job is one who somehow

feels good about himself, the people he works with, and the world he works in. He has to see himself as a basically adequate person and a real professional, no matter how hard he still works to improve. As a person he has to feel himself wanted; and as a professional he has to feel himself respected. In both respects he has to perceive himself as *free*, with roomy areas of autonomy for the exercise of his best judgment. He has to know that, for all our shortcomings and surface misconduct, the rest of us have pretty good yearnings, too. Maybe, in his generosity and trust, he has to go past the edge of realism almost to the point of danger. Above all, he has to be comfortable enough, inside himself, to be authentically what he is and to send out communications congruent with his real self.

And what has all this to do with "supervision"? Is the supervisor to be a therapist? Even if we have to have teachers who are healthy, don't we have to depend on *selecting* them—rather than on developing them? My view is that we should select as well as we can, of course—and later drop off far more of our "mistakes" than we generally have either the freedom or the nerve to do. I do not wish to turn the school into a psychiatric institution. Nevertheless, the first obligation of a school is to be *healthful* for all who have to be there—teachers as well as learners. That goal, far from being a woolly-minded sentimentality, is a perfectly reasonable expectation, achievable by a lot of ordinary, "little" means.

Let us look at some leadership practices primarily in terms of their personal impact. A school is a physical environment and a social system within which teachers and supervisors and administrators live out much of their lives. It can be a barren, withering place that dries out their juices; or it can be such a place that, in the regular course of their work, people expand. An inquiry is in order as to the factors that add up to the difference.

The Teacher's Environment

We have said that a teacher is likelier to grow able to do his true work if he feels cared for and professionally respected. His physical environment ought to help speak the message to him. Take an example: In some schools teachers daily eat their lunches while they are jammed into some hole-in-the-wall, some leftover space. In other schools even the all-too-short half-hour is an invitation to relaxation and good talk, with some small grace notes of beauty, and with a menu fit for adults. One may have to forgive a great deal of austerity that is forced by sheer

circumstance: but there appears to be a high correlation between morale and pleasant and adequate facilities.

Teachers' lounges speak very loudly. How revealing these rooms are of someone's attitudes toward teachers—and, since teachers often furnish and run these lounges themselves, how revealing of their own self-concepts! It is a profound relief, now and then, to visit a lounge that quietly assumes the value of comfort and grace.

Finally, in this physical realm, there is the matter of offices. What do we say to a teacher about his professional role when we rule that he does not need a place to read, to meditate, or to confer in privacy with his students and colleagues? Do we really wish to imply that he will do so little studious work that his need for filing space and shelving is less than that of a secretary? Many schools are not planned as if teachers are supposed to be people who carry on a life of the intellect. Again, harsh circumstance may often forbid much elaboration; there are some places, however, where people have cared enough to become ingenious in supporting a rich and enabling setting for professional growth.

Anyone responsible for a group of teachers (the principal may be in the best position of all) might well draw up a formal check list of the physical conditions with which those teachers live and go over it with them *individually*. The items on the list may vary from place to place. The following are suggestions only:

1. The luncheon facility
   Is it clean? comfortable? gracious?
   Is the food "adult"?
   Is it separate enough from the student facility to feel like a "faculty place"?
   Is it conducive to collegial talk?
2. The faculty lounge
   Is it clean? comfortably furnished? gracious?
   Does it convey a sense of professional dignity?
   Is it adequate for relaxation?
   Is it also suggestive of something more than relaxation?
3. Privacy
   Has the teacher any place where he can just "contemplate his navel"?
   Has he a place where he can conduct a perhaps painful interview with a student or colleague?
4. Work
   Has the teacher a desk—dependably all his own?

Has he shelving enough so that he can have books, etc., at his fingertips?
Has he filing space adequate for keeping important papers and correspondence? locked?
Has he a typewriter, if he uses one?
When he wants to preview a film, can he?
Has he an office?

5. Study
Is there a library geared to his needs?

Another check list might deal with *conversations.* Principals and supervisors have a lot of brief, chance encounters with teachers—walking down the hall together, dropping in for a report. How much of the ensuing talk goes beyond mere chitchat (valuable enough, in its way, as a social lubricant)? How often is there a bubbling reference to an article just read, or a question that might move a pressing practical problem to higher ground? We need not be pedantically stuffy about this; still, what better way is there to convey the feeling that we are competent partners in a professional enterprise, that we are wrestling with powerful problems, and that our judgments are important?

This sort of suggestion is often made under a hidden heading of "getting teachers to read"—and that may be a fine side effect, too, even if the assumptions behind it are sometimes a bit condescending. It is important to explore the thousand and one subtle ways in which a genuinely professional self-image is helped to form. A list of what got said in a week of conversational opportunities would be a remarkably good self-supervisory tool.

We ought to be taking a long, thoughtful look at the teacher's *way of life.* What does it produce? Given 10 years, will it produce a fuller, richer person—or a harried hack? There are some tough realities here, to be sure: so many youngsters to be taught, so much work to be done. But we have more of the variables under our control than we commonly think.

For instance, there are secondary schools that, without changing the overall student-faculty ratio, simply have each teacher teach their classes fewer hours per week—say, 15 instead of 25—and cut their students loose for more independent work. Now, suddenly, the teacher is no longer seeing 30 students on the hour for five hours every day. He is still terribly busy—maybe busier than ever—but about half the time he is working with individuals or small teams, perhaps working up an imaginative independent project. What difference will that shift

in the way he lives his days make, over time, in the way he "sees" youngsters? in his conception of his own function?

Team teaching is, for many, another example of a significant change in way of life. Teaching has been a lonely business, starved for the interplay of adult minds. Many teachers have been far more "self-contained" than their classrooms ever were. Teaching in teams, or in the informal give-and-take of the large open-space arrangements, has the potential to offset much of this. It becomes a normal part of life to see one's colleagues at their work, and to be seen by them. It becomes natural to talk freely about pupils with special resources or special problems. At the end of a day—or at any handy break—it is almost inevitable that people will lean back to look over what "worked" and what didn't, and lean forward into a bit of replanning.

Two problems seem to be prevalent. One is that too many schools provide time and facilities for everything except thoughtful team evaluation and planning. Without several hours a week of cooperative self-study and planning, the whole team venture risks becoming mechanistic. At the secondary level, the sheer pressure of time may lead to what J. Lloyd Trump, in his moments of discouragement, calls "turn teaching." If teachers and others in school work are to rise toward the higher levels of professional thinking, the provision of those few hours a week may be one of our crucial instruments.

Another problem is that many so-called teams are really tight little hierarchies in which one "master teacher" stands to gain in prestige and ego-satisfaction while several teammates are put down into subordinate status. There are excellent arguments for the differentiation of staff roles; relatively untrained paraprofessionals as well as not-yet-credentialed students probably expect to play an assistant role for a while; perhaps even first-year credentialed teachers may appreciate this sort of introduction to a career. But, among mature practitioners, it seems to me dangerous to subject some to what may easily become little pools of autocracy.

If teachers are to see themselves as autonomous professionals engaged in an extremely complex kind of work—and constantly striving to become more adequate to it—then everything in their way of life should speak the message to them. It may be overpretentious to think that elementary and secondary teachers—like a university professor—should embody the life of the *scholar*. Their role is different from his. Yet for them, too, there should be an *intellectual* life. Study ought to be a part of it—study not just of tomorrow's lesson, but of content broadly based as well as of an art of teaching trued-up by the best that

is known of learning. Nowhere else do our leadership programs seem to fall so far short.

A long, thoughtful look at teachers' *way of life* could give us extremely valuable cues to action. To take only a very brief sample, suppose we started with the assumption that a reasonably able and aspiring young teacher is going to be in our school for 10 years. Suppose, then, we were to ask ourselves this question: If for these 10 years he lives according to the general life patterns of teachers here, what will that make of him?

- At the end of those 10 years, will he be, in a general way, more of an "intellectual" than he now is?
- Will he be a student of teaching?
- Will he be likely to be carrying on small bits of research?
- Will he see students more as unique individuals, as against types of persons?
- Will he be more responsive to "leads" provided by his students?
- Will he himself be a more autonomous person, with more feeling of being in charge of his own life space?
- Will his communications—whether to students, colleagues, or superior officers—be more openly congruent with his own real self?
- Will he be more enthusiastic about the profession he chose for his life work?

If the answers to such questions do not come out very happily, we shall have a tip-off that we have to look to the whole style of life of a faculty. There is little use beating our brains out to teach "the newer methods" to teachers who are steadily shrinking in self-esteem, feeling more and more like small cogs in a great bureaucratic machine. It is the sickening perception that this is what is happening to them—that professional life narrows in on them by the year—which drives so many of the best teachers into alienation and tired defeat.

The Scope of Involvement

No other messages teachers receive are quite as powerful as those which tell them how much—or how little—their professional judgment is valued. Human beings crave significance; they need to feel that they *count*. Professional people have a special need for that freedom of decision and that participation in decision making which are the very touchstone of a profession. If all the "big" decisions are made elsewhere, by other people, they soon get the message: that they are all right to

"teach little things to little children," but not quite part of the councils of the grown-ups. And if that is what they feel, their growth will be stunted, no matter how abundantly paternalistic kindliness and courtesy may flow over them.

The precise form of organization may not matter all that much. The elaborate systems some schools have developed to guarantee elective representation on a variety of cabinets and councils are probably all to the good—and yet they may only scratch the surface. At worst they may only add to the stifling bureaucracy which cramps and confines. What counts is the spirit within which the teacher lives from day to day and year to year—his sure knowledge of being "in on" whatever shapes him and the school.

Teachers—most of them, anyway—are realists in these matters. They know that there is never enough money to implement every idea anyone may have, and that other circumstances might legitimately block some even if money were plentiful. They know that time and energy—their own as well as others'—put essential limits on the long-drawn-out process of solving every problem *via* pure democracy. They believe in efficiency and in a reasonable division of labor: they do not wish to play at being administrators.

And yet they are sensitively aware that very often the short-circuiting of collegial democracy—the pleas of haste and lack of time and all that—spring from some official's feeling that he knows best, or his conscious or unconscious urge to gather power into his own hands. They are not fooled for long when they see meeting after meeting—all those wonderful opportunities for genuine consultation—thrown away by some "leader's" endless verbosity and "announcements," or by the effusive acceptance of some contributions and the abrupt closing-off of others. And when they sense that the contributors themselves, as well as their contributions, are being progressively graded on a hidden scale of conformity, they "turn off."

This is not the place for a long treatment of ways and means. There is already a voluminous and technical literature available. In this discussion of what helps the person-within-the-teacher to grow, I simply wish to press the point that most of what Morris Cogan calls "general supervision" is *involvement*: full and free involvement in whatever matters.

Good supervisors have long known that genuinely cooperative sharing in curriculum work—program development—is the best single means supervision has at its command. I accept that most heartily. But if that means that the teacher's role should be restricted to *instructional* matters—and that is often exactly what it does mean—I must object

most heartily. *There is no area* of the school's life and organization in which the faculty does not have legitimate concern and valuable insight.

We must develop the ingenuity to give those concerns and insights free play, and use them. All teachers do not have the same interests and resources. We need to make room for many "little" foci of leadership. Often a task force—or a committee of one—can do the spadework that makes it easy for a school faculty to shape a decision with economy of time. When they need funds and time to do it, they should have them just as surely as any administrator should.

Nothing is more wrong, especially in many large districts, than that teachers, supervisors, principals, curriculum directors, superintendents, or boards of education are—consciously or unconsciously—clutching power to themselves; arrogantly assuming that each group, *ex officio*, is so expert and wise that it can bypass the others.

The Development of Sensitivity

As we emphasize the personal-growth component of staff development, it is virtually impossible to ignore a burgeoning cluster of methods and devices aimed overtly at certain aspects of human potentiation. If there is one generic term for what has become a major movement, it may be "sensitivity training." Yet that term encompasses so great a range of programs and styles—and even of purposes—that one would be hard put to define it. Undoubtedly, at bottom, there is a great deal in common among the T-groups, the encounter groups, the work at Esalen, and dozens of commercial enterprises; but the violent waves at the surface obscure what lies underneath.

Perhaps, for perspective, it may be best to look past the specific programs for a moment, and contemplate a great tide that seems to have been gathering force in human intercourse. This has been virtually the century of the behavioral sciences. The piercing insights of Sigmund Freud have shaken our world as profoundly as those of Charles Darwin. They led to unprecedented speculation about human nature and intense introspection into our real motivations, accompanied for decades by a preoccupation with psychoanalytical digging into pathology. The emergence of cultural anthropology along with sociology and social psychology broadened the base. Gradually the biological sciences took ascendancy even over the physical sciences. *Man* had become the center of investigation.

Over time, the emphasis on psychopathology lessened. At least in educational circles, the spotlight moved over to the concept of *mental health*, and often that term was expanded to "positive mental health"—

something beyond the mere absence of illness. Curiosity began to center upon man's potential. Leaders like Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers sketched portraits—visionary, yes, but rooted in scientific knowledge—of "self-actualizing people" and the "fully effective person." A new conception was growing, of potentialities that transcended anything that anyone but a few intuitive geniuses had even dared to dream of.

Something else was happening, too, something profound and difficult to analyze. Maybe it was largely a reaction to our increasingly massive and technological society—in large part a revulsion against its impersonality and anonymity. Sensitive observers like Erich Fromm began picking up a shift from "inner-directedness" to "other-directedness," and a startling emphasis on the ability to love and be loved. The hippies and the flower children struck most people as mere aberrations, but to perceiving ears they sounded a new theme in the social symphony. Theodore Roszak called attention to the rising counter cultures. In an infinite variety of modes, many of the ablest and most sensitive youth dissolved their allegiance to the old order and launched a quest for a dimly and variously perceived "something better."

As it turned out, the behavioral sciences and the youth movements came to have quite a bit in common. Both stressed the ways people relate to one another, and to their own inner selves. Both placed great value on genuineness and authenticity. (The psychologist said "incongruent"; the youth said "phony.") Both struggled toward greater openness of communication and a more accepting tone toward self and others. Both placed a new premium on the whole affective side of life—as against the coolly rational—with a vaguely defined lovingness as the ultimate. The scientists tended to handle all this in moderate terms, while the youth plunged for instant paradise; but underneath the great differences lay much of common foundation.

Well, this is the sketchiest of sketches, and probably far from acceptable to the more scholarly minded. I have taken this little detour simply to underline that the teacher of today—the whole school of today—operates in a world that is changing far more profoundly in certain humane ways than it is in technology. Teaching has always been fundamentally a matter of communication and human interrelation: it can hardly be unaffected if the very image of communicating and relating is shifting.

It is a valid and important question, then, whether teachers need special education in this broad area. If they do, a growing—but still limited—set of resources is available. The National Training Laboratories, with their nationwide network of highly selected associates, are a prime resource. Most schools of education are tooling up to offer some

help. In various areas, individuals are probing into such concepts as "gestalt education."

One thing to keep in mind as we consider whether teachers should be offered something of the order of special "sensitivity training" is that our response does not have to be of the "all or nothing at all" type. There are important and valuable means short of the all-out program.

First, a teacher should have command of a facile and ingenious use of a variety of group processes, utilizing each one appropriately. This can be got on a purely competence basis, without any digging into the teacher's own personality structure. In a laboratory setting it should take no great sweat for a group of teachers to get completely at home with such simple devices as buzz groups, psychodrama, role playing, fishbowl techniques, and so on. Simple as these devices are, they can make a great difference in the liveliness of a teacher's work with groups. A little harder to come by, but still not really difficult, is a feel for when to use one device or another. All this ought to become rather routinely the property of any teacher, because it enables him to achieve easily what might be hard otherwise.

Second, a teacher needs to cut deeper and gain in understanding of the dynamics of groups. This is no mere matter of so many techniques; yet it still stops short of "messing with" the teacher's own inner life. It can be approached fairly intellectually through educational sociology and other media. It will greatly deepen the teacher's awareness of what may be going on out there in front of him, in the classroom. When it is coupled with study of the differing mores and views of the world of various social classes and ethnic groups, it can be a powerful determinant of whether a teacher can come genuinely *tête-à-tête* with his students.

Beyond all this lies the teacher's genuine insight into himself, his ability to lay his self on the line, a developed awareness of how he affects others. This, presumably, is what "sensitivity training" has to offer. But, once more, let us remind ourselves that there are unobtrusive, less jarring ways of moving toward such a deepening than the weekend marathon or the two-week T-group. A careful use of interaction analysis, for instance, is a sensitizing experience. One sees himself more validly, and how others respond to him. What may seem like bare skills training in the art of asking opening-up questions—and maybe pushing and probing a bit further, and really hearing the responses—is a sensitizing thing. There are other trails into this domain.

Yet, finally, there remains the bold question: Should teachers be offered formal, overt sensitivity training? I think that issue is still in doubt. At the very least, any move in this direction should be guarded by certain cautions:

1. No program should be launched unless genuinely competent leadership can be had. Not only the technical training of the leader(s) is vital, but also character, and maturity of wisdom.

2. No one should be forced in. Even volunteering should be watched, for some fearful persons will volunteer not because they wish to, but because they are scared not to.

3. There is some evidence that while formal training may be very good for essentially healthy persons, it may pose dangers for persons with too great a load of personal problems.

4. It is still an open question whether T-groups, etc., should be composed of persons whose work will throw them together thereafter.

Over time, out of the welter of exploratory efforts, we shall work through to a new humane sensitivity and beauty in human relations. The schools had better be actively involved in this great surge. And where some enthusiastic teachers can work with good leadership, we should open the way for them.

Meanwhile, the people who ought to move most vigorously to cultivate the new skills and sensitivities are the supervisors and administrators themselves. One principal's forceful use of democratic group processes and heightened responsiveness to his people can make a world of difference to a whole faculty. Some administrators are called authoritarian who, in the psychological sense, are anything but "authoritarian personalities." They are only *awkward*. Yet when, in their lack of technique, they fail to facilitate open discussion and promote the free flow of ideas, the result is almost the same!

Once again, the approach can be through the less threatening stages. Acquiring the skills of flexible, adaptive process--and practicing their use until it comes naturally—is the easiest. Deepening one's awareness of the dynamics of groups is harder, but in no way threatening. Digging into one's inner self and exposing it can be a frightening thing—but persons who aspire to effective leadership in these days had probably better nerve themselves for that venture.

The Teacher Center

THE MOST dramatically successful institutional change in education in our times may well be the one which produced the "open" primary school in England. Far from being a mere administrative rearrangement, like so many of our instant panaceas of recent years, it rested upon fundamental shifts in the perceptions and habits of thousands of teachers. In one account of the changeover (*Revolution in the British Primary Schools*, published in 1972 by the National Association of Elementary School Principals), Sir Alec Clegg, who was an administrator in the region where the movement first took root, seems to credit it largely to the existence of a place called Woolley House.

Perhaps Sir Alec is unduly modest, but the image he projects of "supervision" is a delightful one. Here and there a teacher or a principal would come up with an idea, and Sir Alec would just give encouragement and whatever help he could. Once the big old home called Woolley House became available, the teachers had a place to gather informally, swap experiences, and just talk. Now and then they identified a problem on which they needed organized assistance, and the administration would back them up with consultants or whatever might be helpful. It was all very low-profile and gradual—over a period of some 20 years—but the result truly was a revolution, and it was built in solidly because everybody who cared to be was in on it.

In 1971 the U.S. Office of Education proposed the establishment of some 200 centers, which have been variously called "renewal centers," "teacher centers," etc. That particular proposal hit heavy political weather, but the idea is in the air. Around the country, colleges, school districts, counties—and diverse combinations of institutions—are evolving centers in a variety of forms. Perhaps, while the whole teacher-center notion is still in such a state of flux, we could do worse than to speculate—and even dream—about what such a center should look like and feel like.

The key idea is that the center should truly be a *teacher* center. It will need leadership and coordination, but it need not be bureaucratic. It will need funds; but despite that fact, the appropriating agencies can have the vision and courage somehow to keep it *outside* the straight line of authority. It can capture the *looseness* which is essential to creativity and spontaneous divergence.

This means that the center should be basically in the hands of the teachers. Supervisory and administrative people certainly should not be shut out, for they will be needed to facilitate group action, and if they

are to do that intelligently they need to be in on the thinking. But in the talk and planning, they should be there only as peer members—maybe even as lesser peer members—and then they should be cast as helpers when something needs to be done. This will take a faith which many do not have. Yet we simply must make an unwavering bet that teachers—all educators—want to improve and will work hard at it.

The center should not become a *locus of authority*. This works two ways: Its creative processes should not be subject to the mandate of the administration. Yet neither should it have a mandate upon the administration. What is "thought up" there should still have to be "sold" to the public, the school board, and the administration, before it is adopted into the regular system of the school. In other words, the center should be a place for freedom, inventiveness, persuasive influence—and occasional subversion.

The central test is the center's ability to deliver real help to those who want it. The central thesis is that practitioners—perhaps highly differentiated groups of practitioners—can best determine what that help should be. Perhaps when some group of teachers have got excited about a project, they will call for the same panoply of devices an administrator might have assigned in the first place—workshops, consultancies, extension courses, intervisitations, travel, etc.—but there will be a difference.

What will it take, in a center, to capacitate such helpfulness? Without developed experience, no one can write a set of specifications. Yet it seems reasonable to project a preliminary bit of types of resources:

1. *Planning resources.* If practitioners are to get their heads together, share their triumphs and tribulations, analyze their needs, and come up with concerted proposals, they need congenial space in which to do it. They need rooms of various sizes, deliberately tooled up for optimum group process. And let us, for once, insist upon comfort and grace.

2. *Technical resources.* One great function of a center will be to serve as a *skills laboratory*. The skills will range over wide spreads. They will include simple, more or less mechanical things like making one's own transparencies for the overhead projector. They may include minicourses such as we have mentioned earlier, on the art of asking questions or conducting an inquiry lesson. That may well demand a microteaching clinic equipped with video tape recorders and projectors. And that, in turn, will require the ability to bring in children and youth for laboratory work.

3. *Study resources.* The center should provide a really good professional library, of course, including a wide range of audio and visual

media, perhaps even dial access to information sources beyond the scope of a center. One of the things I should most want to find there is a comprehensive collection of the materials being produced in recent years by the great curriculum projects. Many of these encapsulate content, spirit, and methodology toward which we have been groping for years. It is a tragic waste that rich resources such as *Man: A Course of Study* or the social studies materials produced at Tufts University are achieving only scattered use because so few professionals really know about them. Compared to the wistful homilies in most education books, these give an able teacher something to chew on.

4. *Consultant resources.* Whenever a group decides it needs help, that help should be made available with a minimum of red tape—and the people who want the help should have an active part in selecting it. Most colleges and universities—and not their schools of education only—would be delighted to have service ties with a center. Individuals and groups within the community would be honored to be invited.

5. *Travel resources.* The day is past when only administrators—and, in a subordinate way, supervisors—need to be able to go where something good is and study it at firsthand.

6. *Fooling-around resources.* Many teachers need nothing else so much as a chance to mess around with a hunk of clay and see what they can make of it.

7. *Social resources.* It ought not to strain the institution too much if somebody wants to pop a pan of popcorn.

But maybe even this sketchy bit is already too much of specification. We are in a situation now to play with a wonderfully fresh idea for a while, turn our common sense loose, and see what we can make of it. Probably the thing we least need is to encumber it with so much elaboration that it will die of its own weight. The essentials are a congenial comfort, complete independence from the lines of authority, and freedom to find the tools that are needed over time. Communities, as well as we of the professional leadership cadre, still have much learning to do: to invest in teachers with unwavering faith in their ingrained desire to grow and their ability to do it if the climate is right.

The Key to Better Education

THIS REPORT may appear terribly incomplete. At almost every point the techniques could have been elaborated, more research evidence could have been cited, and more examples of developmental programs could have been described. But my interest has been in a set of ideas which, taken together, add up to the transposition of supervision into a new key.

The "old" key is one in which the dominant chord is the superiority of superiors. It is epitomized by the system in which some official—a principal, a supervisor—visits a classroom, observes for a while, and later delivers a critique of the performance. Now there are many reasons that such persons should be well acquainted with classrooms; in the case of student teachers, beginners—and sheer weaklings—there may even be good reasons for their showing and telling how things should be done. But a system of supervision which is valuable only to beginners and weaklings is a sorry system. And a conception of supervision which identifies it almost exclusively with "methods" is a limiting thing.

For many years we have felt the need for a supervising system which could be at least equally valuable even if every teacher were already operating at a superior level—of which it could truly be said that "the better the teacher the more valuable the supervision." We have seen a good many examples of supervision of which that was admirably true. Yet the pattern of supervision in some situations has seemed to defeat the possibilities. In the classroom we need strong, professionally autonomous personalities who feel their strength and their open opportunity. Yet in all too many situations we have a supervisory administrative system that keeps whittling staff members down and putting them in their place.

Much of this problem goes back to an overwhelming preoccupation with "methods." This is by sustained attention to the techniques of their craft, and teachers often need help here. Yet this has often led to our working with them at a lowest-common-denominator level of their total task. And it has lent itself to the "teaching teachers how to teach" syndrome, with all the attendant dangers of a taken-for-granted superior/subordinate relationship.

Therefore, the new media which put the teachers' learning of skills on a far more independent basis are important, freeing everybody from the old, tense relationships of visit-cum-critique. The new systems go deeper into the fundamentals of skill and achieve gains at a more rapid rate.

These new resources must be used. That is the chief reason for this piece of work. They are only at the beginning of their effectiveness.

They can be further improved and refined. They deserve our attention and they deserve real investment. Then we can have a new era in supervision.

Still, the finest thing about that new era will be a magnified ability to go to bigger things. Supervision is more than the building of skills, though it includes that. It is more than the coordination of a school's program, though it includes that, too. It is not even enough to say that it is staff development, though certainly that is a lofty goal.

In the last analysis, supervision is the nervous system of the school. It is the system which enables the school to learn. In an almost biological sense, it is the system which enables the school to adapt, in an era when change is so deep and pervasive that survival is at stake.

Now that we have the resources to take much of the skill-building task off our hands—and to relieve the tensions that have accompanied it—we are free to give our time and energy to the larger tasks. And we can approach these, not as something which a select few do to many others, but as genuinely collegial tasks in which the whole community of professionals join hands. The teachers will be freed from something which has bothered them, the supervisors will be freed from low-order tasks which have claimed their time, and together they will be able to move to higher ground.

And yet there will always need to be those persons who make the whole thing possible. As someone has said in another context, designated leaders are "in charge of the humanity of the transaction." They are the ones who can open it up to a genuinely shared growing and learning. Their role will always be a very hard one to live up to: terribly demanding upon sheer physical and moral stamina, even more demanding upon insight and wisdom. They work in the midst of turbulence which may never subside. They deserve the best tools that can be had. Beyond that, they too deserve respect and the time and conditions needed for *their* way of life, to cultivate that inner strength and richness of resource which alone will enable them to surmount their problems. They deserve all this because they are the key to better education. The great institution they serve cannot learn and adapt well enough even to survive without them.

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